

CHAPTER TWO: THE STRUGGLE FOR FLORIDA AND CONSTRUCTION OF CASTILLO DE SAN MARCOS, 1565-1821

EXPLORATION IN FLORIDA AND THE FOUNDING OF ST.AUGUSTINE

The history of Castillo de San Marcos begins with the earliest European exploration in the New World. In the century following the initial voyage of Christopher Columbus to the Caribbean in 1492, Spanish conquistadores carved out a vast and wealthy overseas empire for Spain that encompassed many of the Caribbean islands and the mainlands of Mexico, Central America, Colombia, Venezuela, and Peru.

Juan Ponce de León discovered the Florida peninsula in 1513, claiming the North American continent for Spain. Ponce de León also discovered a significant water current crucial to the success of Spanish empire—the Gulf Stream. Leaving the Caribbean by way of the Bahama Channel, Spanish galleons carrying the riches of the Americas utilized the natural flow of the Gulf Stream to propel them along the Florida coast and across the Atlantic. As a result, Florida assumed a great deal of strategic significance: if Spain did not control Florida, pirates would use its harbors as a base from which to attack the treasure fleets.²

A number of attempts to settle Florida followed Ponce's discovery, but their costly failures led the Spanish king, Philip II, to forbid any further efforts at colonizing the region in 1561. The monarch revoked his order three years later, however, as word arrived in Spain of the newly established French settlement, Fort Caroline, on the St. Johns River in northeast Florida. In an effort to protect Spanish interests in the New World, Philip commissioned Pedro Menéndez de Avilés to remove the French from Florida and colonize the area for Spain.³

Menéndez arrived on the coast of Florida in 1565, landing first at Cape Canaveral before travelling north to the sheltered harbor of the land he named San Agustín. Hastily erecting fortifications around the big house given to the Spaniards by the Timucua Indian Chief Seloy, Menéndez and his men prepared to defend Spanish claims to Florida. An attack on Fort Caroline

¹ George B. Tindall and David E. Shi, *America: A Narrative History*, 2d ed. (New York: W. W. Norton and co., 1989), 8-9.

² Verne E. Chatelain, *The Defenses of Spanish Florida. 1565-1763* (Washington, DC: Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1941), 5-9.

³ Ibid.. 7-17

while the French fleet was at sea eliminated most of the settlers; the sailors later met their demise when their ships wrecked, leaving them at the mercy of the Spanish. Most of the men, including their leader Jean Ribault, were killed at the direction of Menéndez. Within two months of landing in Florida, Menéndez had reclaimed the vast territory comprising most of North America for the Spanish king.⁴

THE FIRST CENTURY IN ST. AUGUSTINE

The Spanish settlers remained in Seloy's village less than a year due to growing discord between the natives and the newcomers. The move out of the big house was the first of several within a small area around Matanzas Bay that would eventually lead them to the site of present-day St. Augustine. During the first century of the Florida settlement, the Spanish built nine different wooden forts for the defense of the colony. Each of these had a short life span due to the ill effects of time, weather, and insects on the structures. Enemy attacks destroyed the forts that were not eliminated by natural forces.⁵

The likelihood of attack and the shortage of food and supplies most threatened the safety and stability of the colony. Settlers made few attempts to farm the land around St. Augustine because of poor soil conditions and the threat of Indian attack on those who ventured too far from the settlement. Except for produce raised in small plots around the houses, all of the colony's food, clothing, and other necessities came from Mexico and Habana, Cuba. Because supply shipments were often detained in Mexico and occasionally lost at sea, the residents of St. Augustine were often hungry and poorly clothed.⁶

The threat of enemy raids on the town was always present, both from neighboring Native American tribes angered by Spanish activities and from other European nations covetous of Spain's New World riches. The English in particular threatened Spanish control of the Florida coast due to the success of privateers like Sir Francis Drake. In 1586, Drake led an expedition against the Spanish at St. Augustine and took the city with relative ease, burning the wooden



Figure 2. Pedro Menéndez de Avilés

⁴Albert Manucy, *Florida's Menéndez: Captain General of the Ocean Sea* (St. Augustine: St. Augustine Historical Society, 1965), 30-45.

⁵Chatelain, 41; Luis Arana and Albert Manucy, *The Building of Castillo de San Marcos* (Eastern National Park and Monument Association, 1977), 10-11.

⁶Chatelain, 9

fort, houses, and other buildings.⁷ Thomas Cates, an English sailor who accompanied Drake during the assault, described the fort at that time, named San Juan de Pinos:

*When the day appeared we found it built all of timber, the walles being none other but whole Mastes or bodies of trees set vpright and close together in manner of a pale, without any ditch as yet made, but wholly intended with some more time; for they had not as yet finished al their work, having begunne the same some three or foure moneths before: so as, to say the trueth, they had no reason to keepe it, being subject both to fire, and easie assault.*⁸

Cates's description illustrates the appearance of this early precursor to Castillo de San Marcos and the vulnerability of wood forts to enemy attack.

Despite the inadequacies of the wooden forts erected in St. Augustine, the Spanish continued to build and repair these structures, largely because they did not have the money to construct a masonry fortification. The attack of the pirate John Davis in 1668 provided the stimulus for the construction of a masonry fortress, however. Davis and his men captured a Spanish supply ship from Havana headed to St. Augustine and sailed into the city without raising suspicion among the townspeople. His attack under cover of night revealed once again the vulnerability of the colony and the inadequacy of its defenses. Fear that the pirates would return to claim the city, which they had not destroyed, led the colonial governor to request aid from officials

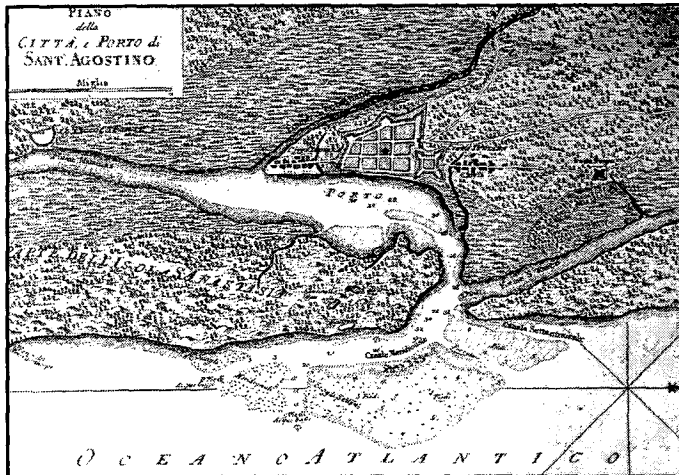


Figure 3. Plan of St. Augustine, 1660

in Spain and Mexico. The Spanish queen approved the proposal for construction of a masonry fortress at St. Augustine, and in 1672 the first stone was laid for Castillo de San Marcos⁹

⁷ Amy Bushnell, "The Noble and Loyal City, 1565-1668," in *The Oldest City: St. Augustine, Saga of Survival*, ed. Jean Parker Waterbury (St. Augustine: St. Augustine Historical Society, 1983), 36.

⁸ Albert Manucy, ed., *A History of Castillo de San Marcos and Fort Matanzas from Contemporary Narratives and Letters* (Washington, DC: National Park Service, 1943), 8.

⁹ Arana and Manucy, 7-9.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY MILITARY FORTRESSES

Seventeenth century military engineering conventions dictated the design of Castillo de San Marcos. The introduction of cannon as an implement of war late in the Middle Ages rendered the castle useless as a form of defense and forced military engineers to develop a new type of fortress able to withstand the force of cannon bombardment on its walls. The Italians first developed the bastion system, which quickly spread across Europe and, by the seventeenth century, dominated fortress design. European nations not only utilized bastioned fortresses at home but also built fortifications in their colonial outposts in the same manner, altering designs to suit local conditions and materials. Thus the Spanish officials in St. Augustine adopted the bastion system for the early wood forts and, later, for the stone fortress, Castillo de San Marcos.¹⁰

The bastion system evolved out of the medieval castle form. Engineers lowered castle walls and placed mounds of earth in front of them, creating ramparts able to withstand cannon bombardment. Moats remained an integral part of the defenses to prevent enemy forces from scaling the sloped embankments and entering the fort. The circular castle tower evolved into the angular bastion, which afforded protection to adjacent walls. Beyond the fortress walls engineers placed a variety of masonry and earthen outer works that strengthened the fort's defenses.¹¹

Bastioned forts centered on a plaza, around which the massive ramparts stood. The interior of the ramparts sloped upward toward the fighting platform, called the terreplein. The banquette, or firing step, rose above the terreplein and was protected by the parapet. Soldiers fired on the enemy through embrasures (openings) in the parapet. On the exterior of the rampart, facing the moat, a masonry scarp retained the earthen wall of the rampart. The opposite side of the moat also had a masonry retaining wall, the counterscarp, above which stood the covered way. A palisade protected the banquette for the covered way. The glacis, an earthen bank kept clear of vegetation, sloped downward from the covered way into open country.¹²

Seventeenth century forts were most often square in shape; the linear curtain walls projected outward at the corners into diamond-shaped bastions, from which soldiers could view the surrounding area in all directions. Ravelins were similarly shaped defensive structures, often built in front of curtain walls to provide additional support to the points of the bastions, which were most vulnerable to attack. Finally, outer defense works like counterguards and hornworks, built of earth and wood and placed in front of the fort's main body, provided additional strength to the

¹⁰Luis Arana, "The First Spanish Period, 1668-1763: The Endurance of Castillo de San Marcos," in *Historic Structure Report: Castillo de San Marcos National Monument*, C. Craig Frazier, Randall Copeland, and Luis Arana (National Park Service, 1986), 9-10; Chatelain, 39-40.

¹¹John Muller, *A Treatise Containing the Elementary, Part of Fortification, Regular and Irregular* (1746: reprint, Ottawa: Museum Restoration Service, 1968), 21-22.

¹²Christopher Duffy, *The Fortress in the Age of Vauban and Frederick the Great, 1660-1789*, vol. 2 of *Siege Warfare* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1985), 2.

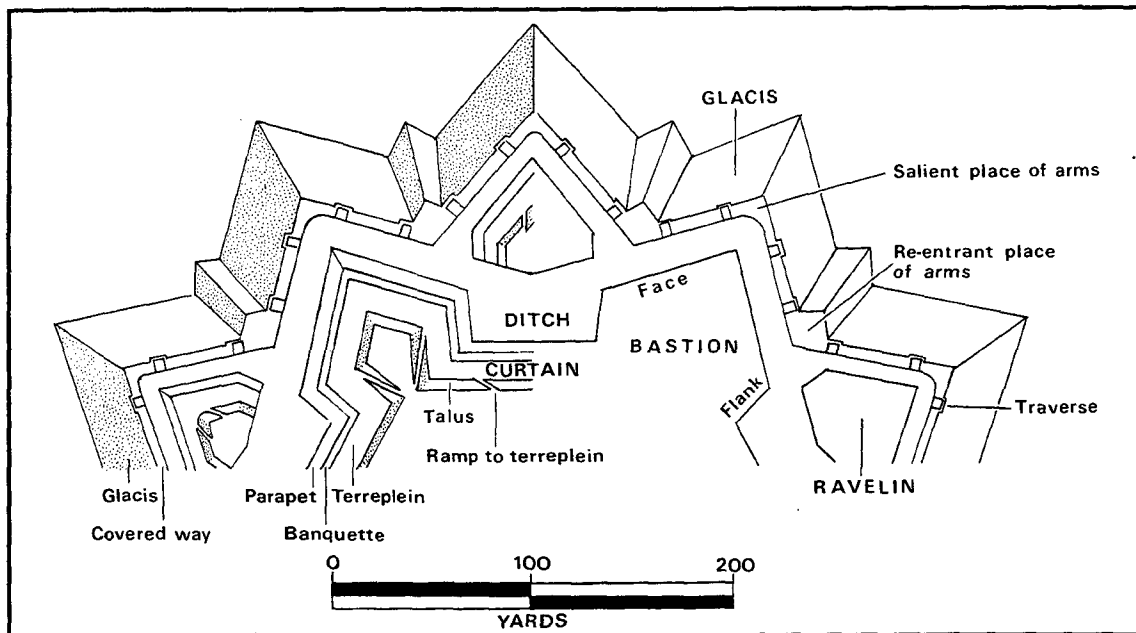


Figure 4. Plan of a simple bastioned fort

fortress and allowed the defenders to move farther into the landscape against the enemy. As a complete defensive fortification, the bastioned fort and its outer defenses provided a great deal of security to its occupants during a siege, although a persistent enemy might breach the walls given sufficient time and manpower.¹³

CONSTRUCTION OF THE CASTILLO

In 1669 Queen Regent Mariana of Spain approved the construction of a masonry fortress in St. Augustine and sent the colony's newly appointed governor, Manuel de Cendoya, to Mexico to obtain the necessary funds. Cendoya arrived in St. Augustine in 1671, after stopping in Havana to recruit masons, stonecutters, and lime burners to aid in construction. In Cuba he also acquired the services of Ignacio Daza, an engineer, and Lorenzo Lajones, the master of construction.¹⁴

Daza was an experienced military engineer familiar with contemporary fortification designs. After examining possible locations for the fort, Daza and the military council in St. Augustine determined that the site of the existing fortress, at the northern edge of town, was most appropriate for the defense of St. Augustine. From this site, enemy fleets attempting to enter the

¹³Ibid., 3.

¹⁴Luis Arana, "Governor Cendoya's Negotiation in Mexico for a Stone Fort in St. Augustine," *El Escribano* 7 (Oct. 1970): 125-33.

harbor could be bombarded easily from the safety of the fort. The location was also advantageous for the protection of the colony from land attack from the north,¹⁵

Preparations for construction began in 1671 as blacksmiths and carpenters made the necessary tools and implements for quarrying and transporting stone to the construction site. Coquina, a soft limestone made of cemented seashells, was locally available on Anastasia Island and provided an adequate material with which to build the fortress. Lime kilns were built in St. Augustine to convert oyster shells into lime for construction. On October 2, 1672, Cendoya and other royal officials broke ground for the foundation trench of the fort, and several weeks later the first stone was laid.¹⁶

Local Indians, convicts, African-American slaves, and occasionally Spanish soldiers labored alongside the skilled workers imported from Cuba. Work progressed at a steady rate on the fortress, although funding shortages and disease epidemics occasionally slowed construction. By 1686, the main block of the Castillo was complete. At that time, the outer curtain walls and bastions of the fort were coquina, while the interior walls and roof were wood; the terreplein was made of tabby, a cement made of lime and seashells, laid on top of wood planks. The fort housed troop quarters, a chapel, and a number of storerooms for the garrison. Ten years later, the moat and seawall were finished, thus enhancing the Castillo's defenses.¹⁷

The War of Spanish Succession between England and Spain precipitated the first true test of St. Augustine's fortress. Governor James Moore of Carolina led an attack against St. Augustine in 1702, hoping to drive the Spanish out of Florida, gain control of the Bahama Channel for the English, and eliminate the threat of Spanish-French aggression against Charleston. When the English reached St. Augustine, they bypassed the Castillo and occupied the town; local residents fled to the fort for protection. The English besieged Castillo de San Marcos for fifty days, until four Spanish men-of-war arrived from Cuba with fresh supplies and

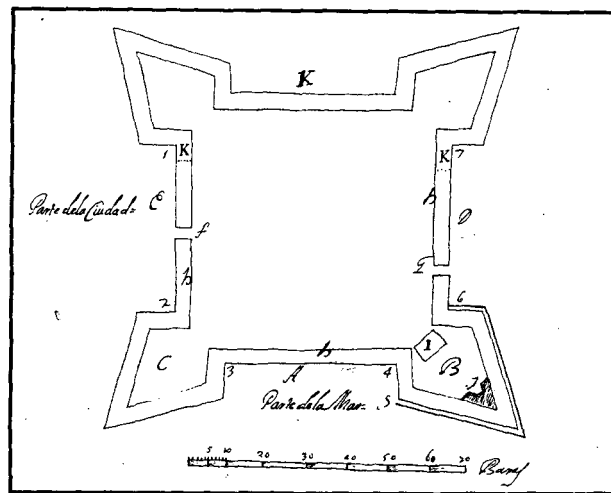


Figure 5. Plan of Castillo, 1675

¹⁵Chatelain, 15

¹⁶Arana, "First Spanish Period," 6, 13

¹⁷Luis Arana, David C. Dutcher, George M. Strock, and F. Ross Holland, *Castillo de San Marcos and Fort Malanzas National Monuments, Florida: Historical Research Management Plan* (National Park Service, 1967), 8-9.

reinforcements. Weary from the long siege and unable to match the new Spanish force, Moore burned his ships, abandoned his supplies, and retreated overland to the St. Johns River. The British set the city afire as they left, and the Castillo was the only structure to survive.¹⁸

Following Moore's attack on the Castillo and the total destruction of St. Augustine, the Spanish sought to strengthen the city's defenses by constructing a system of inner defense lines. Between 1706 and 1763, the Spanish built four earth and log defensive structures around the town. The Cubo Line formed the northern boundary of St. Augustine and, along with the Rosario Line to the west, created a "line of circumvallation" protecting the city's land approaches. The homwork and Fort Mose line were built north of the Cubo Line, between the North River on the east and the San Sebastian River on the west. These structures strengthened the town's defenses but proved difficult to maintain in the warm Florida climate.¹⁹

Meanwhile, a new English threat from the north caused the Spanish to reassess the strength of the Castillo's defenses. General James Oglethorpe began settlements at Savannah in 1732 and at Fort Frederica in 1736, thus staking the English claim to an area traditionally considered part of Spanish Florida. As the English pressed south, Spanish Governor Manuel de Montiano realized that Castillo de San Marcos was inadequate for the defense of the colony, even with the addition of the outer defense works. An evaluation of the fort by Antonio de Arredondo, an engineer from Havana, found that the stone walls were in good shape, but the wood in the interior rooms and the terreplein was rotted through.²⁰ The governor wrote officials in Cuba regarding conditions in St. Augustine:

*Your Excellency must know that this castle, the only defense here, has no bombproofs for the protection of the garrison, that the counterscarp is too low, that there is no covered way, that the curtains are without demilunes, that there are no other exterior works to give them time for a long defense; . . . we are as bare outside as we are without life inside, for there are no guns that could last 24 hours and if there were, we have no artillerymen to serve them.*²¹

Following the governor's report, officials in Cuba sent soldiers, laborers, provisions, and money to St. Augustine. The Cuban governor authorized construction of masonry vaults within

¹⁸Arana and Manucy, 42.

¹⁹Chatelain, 82.

²⁰Arana and Manucy, 42-43.

²¹Ibid., 43.

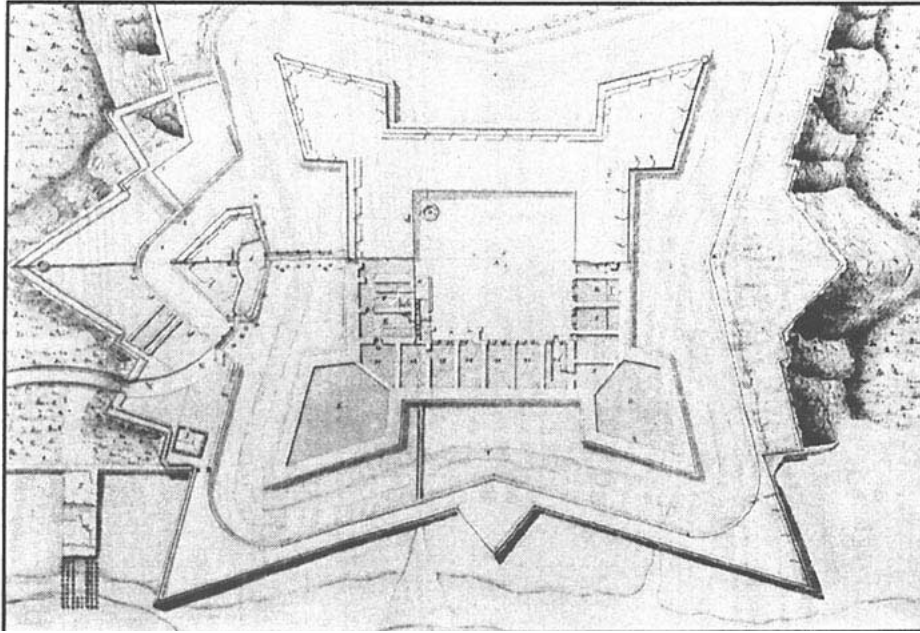


Figure 6. Plan of Castillo, 1763

the fortress walls and improved outer defense works. By 1739, the eight vaults along the east curtain wall were completed, increasing the total height of the wall five feet. The outbreak of war between England and Spain the same year slowed construction, however, and completion of the project was postponed until the end of the war.²²

The War of Jenkins' Ear, as the conflict between England and Spain was known, provided Oglethorpe with an excuse to attack St. Augustine and oust the Spanish from Florida. Oglethorpe sailed south from Fort Frederica in 1740 and lay siege to the Castillo for thirty-eight days, but the onset of the hurricane season caused the English to abandon the effort and return home. Construction on the vaults resumed after the war and was completed between 1750 and 1756. Work also continued on the covered way and the glacis until funds ran out in 1758.²³

In 1762 the Spanish undertook the last of their construction projects at the Castillo. Town residents volunteered their labor to enlarge the covered way by five feet, and masons constructed a six-foot-high stone parapet on top. Construction of the glacis was also completed at this time. Engineers determined that the original ravelin was inadequate to the defense of the fort's entrance; therefore, a new, larger ravelin, capable of housing five cannon and an underground powder magazine, was built by the end of the year.²⁴

²²Ibid., 43-46.

²³Ibid., 46-49.

²⁴Ibid., 52-53

Before the ravelin was completed, news arrived in St. Augustine of the Spanish cession of Florida to England under the terms of the treaty ending the Seven Years War, fought in America as the French and Indian War from 1754 to 1763. All work on the Castillo ceased as the Spanish prepared to evacuate the city. On July 21, 1763, the Spanish governor officially surrendered Castillo de San Marcos to England. Thus ended the occupation of St. Augustine by the Spanish, who chose to abandon the city altogether rather than suffer under British rule.²⁵

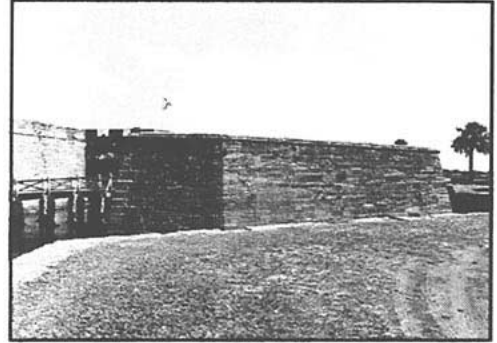


Figure 7. Ravelin viewed from west, 1995

BRITISH OCCUPATION OF FORT ST. MARK

The Spanish left behind a fortified town with approximately 400 residences and the nearly complete Castillo de San Marcos, which the British renamed Fort St. Mark. The elimination of other European powers from the eastern coast of North America diminished the strategic significance of St. Augustine; therefore, the British undertook few alterations to the city's defenses during the first decade of occupation.²⁶

The outbreak of the American Revolution elevated the importance of St. Augustine to the English, however. A British garrison was headquartered in town, and a large number of British Loyalists from the southern colonies sought refuge within its walls. The small frontier outpost quickly became a thriving city. Fort St. Mark received needed repairs to its defenses during this time, including the reconstruction of the entrenchment and retrenchment lines north of the city. The fortress housed troops, weapons, and equipment for the army. Additionally, the British used the fort as a prison for rebel colonists. Hundreds of prisoners of war passed through St. Augustine before being moved elsewhere or exchanged for imprisoned British soldiers and Loyalists.²⁷

Although the Continental Congress entertained plans to invade East Florida in 1778, the British capture of Savannah late that year crushed those ambitions and ended rebel plots against St. Augustine. Even as the American threat to the colony diminished, a new threat to St. Augustine arose from the Spanish, who longed to regain a foothold in North America. Spain declared war on England in 1779 but never launched an attack against East Florida.

²⁵Ihird., 53.

²⁶Daniel L. Schafer, "...Not So Gay a Town in America as This...," 1763 - 1784," in *The Oldest City: St. Augustine, Saga of Survival*, ed. Jean Parker Waterbury (St. Augustine: St. Augustine Historical Society, 1983), 91; Arana and Manucy, 54.

²⁷Albert Manucy and Alberta Johnson, *Fort Marion and the War of Independence* (St. Augustine: National Park Service, Southeastern National Monuments, 1941), 3-10.

Nevertheless, negotiations following the war returned Florida to Spain, and the brief British occupation of St. Augustine ended in July 1784.²⁸

SECOND SPANISH OCCUPATION OF CASTILLO DE SAN MARCOS

Most British citizens evacuated the colony with the military, although about 300 chose to remain and declare allegiance to Spain rather than give up their homes and plantations. The Spanish military escorted the new colonial government into St. Augustine, and the city was soon repopulated with a variety of immigrants, including, "Spaniards, Englishmen, Americans, Minorcans, Italians, Greeks, Swiss, Germans, French, Canary Islanders, Scots, and Irish." A sizable population of free blacks, slaves, and Native Americans resided throughout the colony as well.²⁹

The new Spanish St. Augustine was not a tranquil city, however. Difficulties arising from dependence on Cuba and Mexico continued as they had in the First Spanish Period, leaving the town short on supplies and soldiers much of the year. Unrest along the Georgia border exacerbated the colonial government's problems. Runaway slaves from Georgia often sought refuge in Florida, particularly in the interior of the peninsula controlled by Seminole Indian tribes. As a result, Georgia plantation owners often crossed the border in search of fugitives, raiding Indian towns and Florida plantations. Slaves belonging to Floridians and the Seminoles were often stolen during the raids, and the angry slave owners retaliated with attacks against the Georgians.³⁰

The problems of the colonial government in East Florida escalated with the outbreak of the French Revolution and the ensuing European conflict. The struggle against Napoleon drained the Spanish government of resources, and her colonies in the Americas suffered as a result. Nevertheless, the threat of American or French attack against East Florida inspired the Spanish governor at St. Augustine to undertake improvements to the defenses of the city. The Spanish rebuilt the Cubo Line, widening the moat and lining the earthwork with palm logs. They also built a gate within the line, providing access to the city from the north. The renovations to the Cubo Line and the new City Gate, which replaced an earlier gate built around 1740, were

²⁸John C. Paige, "Castillo de San Marcos: The British Years, 1763-1784," in *Historic Structure Report for Castillo de San Marcos National Monument*, Edwin C. Bearss and John C. Paige (Denver: National Park Service, 1983), 14-21.

²⁹Patricia C. Griffin, "The Spanish Return: The People-Mix Period, 1784-1821," in *The Oldest City: St. Augustine, Saga of Survival*, ed. Jean Parker Waterbury (St. Augustine: St. Augustine Historical Society, 1983), 130-1.

³⁰Rembert W. Patrick, *Florida Fiasco: Rampant Rebels on the Georgia-Florida Border, 1810-1815* (Athens, GA: University of Georgia Press, 1954), 31.

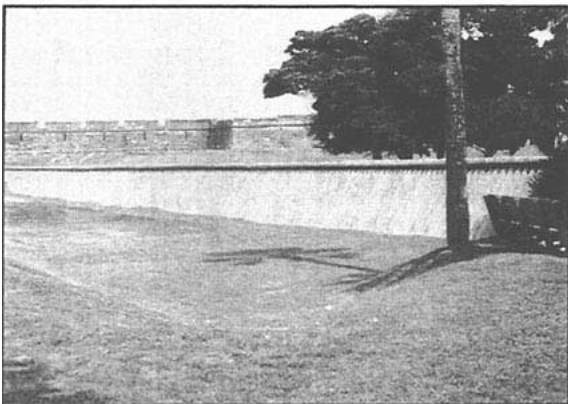


Figure 8. Reconstructed Cubo Line viewed from northwest, 1991

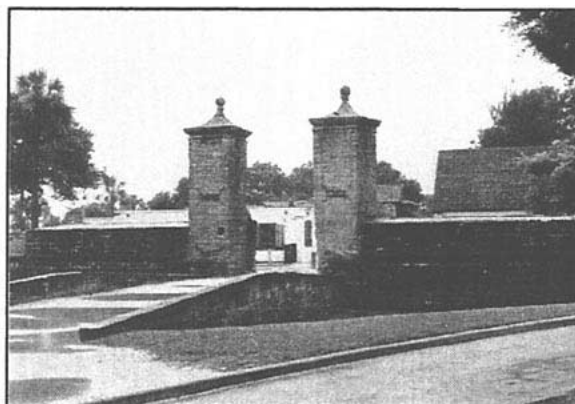


Figure 9. City Gate viewed from northwest, 1991

completed in 1808, and the residents of St. Augustine waited anxiously to see if and when an attack might come.³¹

Florida had long been divided into two sections, west and east, with separate governors. West Florida contained the area west of the Apalachicola River to the Mississippi River, while the peninsula east of the Apalachicola comprised East Florida. It was in West Florida that the first threat to Spanish control emerged. The American government had claimed possession of West Florida following the Louisiana Purchase in 1803, but the Spanish refuted the American claim and retained control of the area. American citizens dominated the population of West Florida, however, and in 1810 they revolted against Spanish authority, meeting little resistance from the helpless Spanish government. The United States annexed the portion of West Florida west of the Perdido River the following year.³²

This bloodless revolution encouraged land-hungry Georgians, who hoped to oust Spain from the rest of Florida. A small group of planters with land in South Georgia and Florida organized in 1812 as the East Florida Patriots and declared their independence from Spain. With the backing of the United States military, the Patriots took the Spanish settlement at Fernandina on Amelia Island and advanced to the old site of Fort Mose, north of St. Augustine. The Spanish governor at St. Augustine refused to surrender to the Patriots, however, and a stalemate ensued during the summer. Attacks by the Seminole allies of the Spanish forced the Americans to retreat, and the cause was lost when President James Madison withdrew his support for the rebels.³³

³¹Ibid.

³²Ibid., 10-12.

³³Ibid., 83-193.

The primary impetus behind the Patriot Rebellion was greed for land and expansion of the American nation. Similar motives propelled the United States in 1812 to declare war on England, which controlled the northern part of the continent. Anxious to expand the nation's boundaries and rid its borders of foreign influence, expansionists utilized the violation of neutral rights by the English and dissatisfaction with Spanish rule in Florida to rally public support behind the War of 1812 and the Patriot Rebellion. Both conflicts were ill-conceived, however, and consequently the goal of expansion was not reached. The Treaty of Ghent, which ended the War of 1812, restored the pre-war boundaries of the United States, including the area of West Florida annexed in 1811; East Florida remained in Spanish hands.³⁴

The affirmation of Spanish control of East Florida in the Treaty of Ghent did not extinguish American desires for annexation of Florida. In 1817, just three years after the treaty was signed, President James Monroe authorized a campaign against the Seminole Indians, who were fighting with American settlers along the Georgia-Florida border. Monroe sent General Andrew Jackson to drive the Seminoles back into Florida. While Jackson was not authorized to attack Spanish posts, he did so anyway, and by May 1818 he had conquered the Florida panhandle. While Jackson's forces never approached St. Augustine, the conquest of East Florida was a motivating force behind his campaign.³⁵

In the wake of American encroachments in Florida and revolutions against Spanish rule in Central and South America, the government in Spain finally acknowledged its inability to maintain possession of Florida. In 1821, Spain agreed to cede Florida to the United States in return for the retirement of Spanish debts owed American citizens. On July 10 of that year, ownership of Castillo de San Marcos transferred to the American government with appropriate fanfare, and the Spanish left the city of St. Augustine for the last time.³⁶

ASSOCIATED PROPERTIES

Castillo de San Marcos and the moat, ravelin, covered way, glacis, Cubo Line, and City Gate are properties associated with the context, "European Powers in Florida: The Construction of Castillo de San Marcos, 1565-1821." All seven structures represent the struggle between European nations for control of North America over two-and-one-half centuries in Florida.

Physical Characteristics

Castillo de San Marcos is a bastioned masonry fortification located north of the colonial town of St. Augustine. The Castillo is built around a square plaza, the sides of which measure 320 feet, and has diamond-shaped bastions projecting outward at each corner. The coquina walls

³⁴Ibid., 144-5, 299.

³⁵Tindall and Shi, 237.

³⁶Ibid., 238-9.

of the Castillo are thirty feet high, ten to fourteen feet thick at the base, and five feet thick at the top. Vaulted casemates support the wide terreplein, and embrasures at intervals along the top of the wall provided openings through which cannon could be fired.

The moat, covered way, and glacis surround the Castillo on the north, west, and south sides. The moat originally encircled the fort on all sides, but the east side was filled with earth in 1842 to create a water battery. The remaining three sides of the moat are framed by coquina walls and contain water; the moat is approximately forty-two feet wide. The covered way is the flat, grassy area between the glacis and the moat; a masonry wall five feet high separates it from the glacis. The glacis is the open, sloped area beyond the covered way that stretches into the landscape. The ravelin is the triangular masonry structure built to afford additional protection to the corners of the bastions. The ravelin is located within the moat on the south side of the fort and is connected to the main structure by a reconstructed drawbridge.

The Cubo Line begins at the covered way on the northwest side of the fort and proceeds 250 feet west toward the City Gate. The line is a reconstruction of the earthwork built in 1808 by the Spanish. The northern and southern faces of the defense work are concrete cast to imitate the palm logs of the original wall. Between the concrete walls is earthen infill, with a depth of forty-five feet. A dry moat exists along the north face of the Cubo Line.

The City Gate of St. Augustine originally was part of the Cubo Line, providing entrance into the city from the north. Two four-foot-square coquina pillars frame an opening twelve feet wide. Each pillar has a cove-molded pyramidal cap with a round finial and a height of fourteen feet. On either side of the pillars, low stone walls thirty feet long by eleven feet wide extend to meet reconstructed portions of the Cubo Line. North of the gate, a coquina bridge spans a shallow moat.

Associative Characteristics

Castillo de San Marcos and the moat, covered way, glacis, ravelin, Cubo Line, and City Gate are closely associated with the struggle for domination of the New World by European powers. The Spanish built the Castillo and its related structures, the moat, covered way, glacis, and ravelin, to protect the colony at St. Augustine and Spanish interests along the eastern coast of North America. Throughout the periods of Spanish and English occupation of Florida, the Castillo was central to the defense of the colony from enemy forces.

The Cubo Line originated during the eighteenth century, while the Castillo was still under construction. Following the English siege of St. Augustine in 1702, the Spanish government recognized the need for improved defenses for the city and undertook construction of defense works around the fort and town. The Cubo Line formed the innermost line of defense; north of the line, the hornwork and Fort Mose line provided additional barriers between the land approach to the city and the Castillo. The Cubo Line and the Rosario Line, another defense work, created the line of circumvallation that walled St. Augustine on the north, west, and south sides. Built of earth and wood, these outworks had short life spans in the subtropical Florida climate and were periodically reconstructed. The Spanish rebuilt the Cubo Line in 1808 and,

at the same time, built the City Gate to allow entrance into St. Augustine through the line. The Cubo Line and the City Gate are closely associated with the attempts to strengthen the defenses of the city during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

Significance

Castillo de San Marcos is nationally significant under National Register Criteria A and C. The Castillo represents the military struggle that occurred in Florida between the European powers, particularly Spain and England, for control of North America. It also illustrates the early diplomacy of the United States government, which culminated in the cession of Florida to the United States in 1821. Indeed, in many ways the Castillo represents the history of the nation from the time of the first permanent European settlement, through the struggle for empire between Spain and England, to the emergence of the American republic. The Castillo is also architecturally significant as the oldest masonry fortification remaining in the United States. Built using the bastion system of fortress construction popular in Europe, Castillo de San Marcos remains an important example of early military architecture in the United States.

The moat, covered way, glacis, and ravelin are nationally significant structures under Criteria A and C. These four structures were integral to the protection of the Castillo and designed as significant elements of the city's defenses. As a result, they represent the battle for control of the eastern shores of North America by the European powers from the time of Florida's discovery to 1821. The structures are also architecturally significant, representing the military theories prevalent at the time of their construction and the execution of these European designs in the New World. Together with Castillo de San Marcos, the moat, covered way, glacis, and ravelin contribute to the understanding of the struggle for the Americas and the early military architecture that resulted from it.

The Cubo Line and City Gate contribute to the significance of the district under Criteria A and C. The Cubo Line is an accurate reconstruction of the line as it appeared in 1808, when the Spanish rebuilt the structure and added the City Gate. The Cubo Line and City Gate represent early additions to the defenses of St. Augustine, and thus several centuries of struggle between European powers for control of Florida. As military fortifications, the Cubo Line and City Gate are typical designs for the period and thus have significance as early nineteenth-century military structures.

REGISTRATION REQUIREMENTS/INTEGRITY

Castillo de San Marcos National Monument was listed on the National Register in 1966, and documentation accepted in 1977 identified a district with three contributing historic structures, including the Castillo and the City Gate. Both the Castillo and the City Gate have retained integrity of location, design, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. The Castillo has additionally retained integrity of setting. The setting of the City Gate has lost some integrity due to the construction of modern roadways that have physically separated it from the Castillo, but the eligibility of the structure has not been significantly diminished by the changes.

The moat, covered way, glacis, and ravelin were included in the original nomination but not individually listed on the National Register. These are independent structures worthy of listing as contributing resources; each demonstrates integrity of location, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. The moat was altered in the mid-nineteenth century when the east side was filled for construction of a water battery. This alteration changed the design of the structure but did not significantly impact its integrity. The covered way, glacis, and ravelin retain integrity of design.

Reconstructions must demonstrate a high level of historical accuracy and integrity in order to be eligible for the National Register. The Criterion Considerations require that reconstructions be placed in appropriate settings as part of a master plan of restoration, in which no other structure with the same association remains. The Cubo Line meets all of these criteria. The reconstruction is built on the original location of the Cubo Line, which was identified through archeological investigation. No physical or archeological remains exist from the other outer defense works constructed at the same time as the Cubo Line. Therefore, the identification of the location of the original Cubo Line provided a unique opportunity for the reconstruction of a significant structure related to the long history of Castillo de San Marcos.

The Cubo Line is an accurate reconstruction, exhibiting integrity of location, design, setting, feeling, and association. The line provides an important visual link between the Castillo and the City Gate, a link that had previously been absent and hindered interpretation of the City Gate at Castillo de San Marcos National Monument. While the reconstruction does not employ the original material, which was palm logs, the choice of concrete is justified both for its longer life span and by the careful casting of the concrete to simulate the appearance of palm logs. During the reconstruction, precautions were taken to protect the archeological remains of the original Cubo Line. The Cubo Line is thus eligible for the National Register due to the historical accuracy of the reconstruction and the lack of other structures with the same association around the fort.

CONTRIBUTING PROPERTIES

Castillo de San Marcos (1672-1756)

Moat (1672-1696)

Covered way (1672-1762)

Glacis (1672-1758)

Ravelin (1762)

City Gate (1808)

Cubo Line (1808; reconstructed 1963)

NONCONTRIBUTING PROPERTIES

None